オブジェクト計算のための型推論系

A typing system for a calculus of objects*

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Summary. The present paper introduces an implicitly typed object calculus intended to capture intrinsic aspects of concurrent objects communicating via asynchronous message passing, together with a typing system assigning typings to terms in the calculus. Types meant to describe the kind of messages an object may receive are assigned to the free names in a program, resulting in a scenario where a program is assigned multiple name-type pairs, constituting a typing for the process. Programs that comply to the typing discipline are shown not to suffer from runtime errors. Furthermore the calculus possesses a notion of principal typings, from which all typings that make a program well-typed can be extracted. We present an efficient algorithm to extract the principal typing of a process.

1 Introduction

Most of the attempts to introduce some type discipline into object-oriented languages start from lambda-calculus, by extending this with some kind of records. There are several limitations to this approach, mainly deriving from the fact that objects are not extensions of functions. In particular, objects do not necessarily present an input-output behavior; objects usually communicate by asynchronous message passing (instead of function application); objects do maintain a state (in contrast with the stateless nature of functions), and objects may run concurrently.

Inspired by Milner's polyadic π -calculus [4], Honda's ν -calculus [3] and Hewitt's actor model [1], we present a basic object-calculus where the notions of objects, asynchronous messages and concurrency are primitive, and introduce a type discipline along the lines of Honda [2] and Vasconcelos and Honda [7] for the (untyped) calculus, enjoying the properties that programs

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that verify the discipline will never run into errors of the kind "message not understood", and that there is an effectively computable notion of principal typings from which all typings that make a process well-typed can be derived.

Terms of the calculus are built from names by means of a few constructors. Messages of the form $a \triangleleft l(\tilde{v})$ are directed to an (object located at) name a, select a method labelled with l and carry a sequence of names \tilde{v} . Terms of the form $a \triangleright [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$ represent objects located at name a, and comprising a collection of methods, each of which composed of a label l_i , a sequence of formal parameters \tilde{x}_i and an arbitrary process as the method body. Processes are put together by means of the usual concurrent composition. Scope restriction and replication complete the set of constructors the calculus is built from.

Following [2, 7], types are assigned to names, and not to processes, the latter being assigned multiple name-type pairs, constituting a typing for the process. Types are built from variables by means of a single constructor $[l_1:\tilde{\alpha}_1,\ldots l_n:\tilde{\alpha}_n]$, representing a name associated with an object capable of receiving messages labelled with l_i carrying a sequence of names of types $\tilde{\alpha}_i$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$. A typing assignment system assigns a type to each free name in a term, thus specifying in some sense the interface of the process. It turns out that the basic typing assignment system possesses no simple notion of principal typing. To provide for a notion of principal typings and to derive an efficient algorithm to extract the principal typing of a process, we use constraints on the substitution of type variables in the form of Ohori's kinds as well as kinded unification [5].

The outline of the paper is as follows. The next section introduces the calculus and section 3 the notion of types and the typing assignment system. Sections 4 and 5 deal with principal typings and typing inference. The last section contains some concluding remarks.

2 The Calculus

This section introduces the calculus to the extent needed for typing considerations. Structural congruence caters for equivalence of terms over concrete syntax and, together with normal forms and message application, makes the formulation of the transition relation quite concise.

Programs are build from names, by means of six basic constructors: messages, objects, concurrent composition, scope restriction, replication and inaction. The set of all terms is P and P, Q, \ldots will denote particular terms.

Messages are directed to a single object and carry a method selector as well as the message contents itself. Method selectors are just labels l, m, \ldots taken from a set of labels L. The contents of a message is a sequence of names; that is, messages carry nothing but names. All basic data a program often needs (including for example boolean values and natural numbers) will

be coded in such a way that every piece of data is identified by a single name. Names $a, b \dots$ or v, x, y, \dots are taken from an infinite set of names N. If $x_1, \dots x_n$ $(n \ge 0)$ are names in N, we write \tilde{x} to mean the sequence $x_1 \dots x_n$ in N*. A message targeted to an object identified by name a, selecting a method labelled with l, and carrying a sequence of names \tilde{v} , is written as,

$$a \triangleleft l(\tilde{v})$$

Object methods are parameterized by a sequence of names (intended to match the contents of an incoming message) followed by a method body. The body of a method is an arbitrary process. A method with a selector l, a sequence formal parameters \tilde{x} , and a body P is written as $l(\tilde{x}).P$. Intuitively, such a method matches a communication $l(\tilde{v})$ and behaves as P with occurrences of names in \tilde{x} replaced by those in \tilde{v} .

Objects have a single identifier — a name again — and a collection of methods each labelled with a different label in L. An object with a collection of methods $l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1, \ldots l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n$ and a name a, is written as,

$$a \rhd [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$$

The remaining constructors in the language are fairly standard in process-calculi. Concurrent composition puts together arbitrary processes. If P and Q are two processes, then P,Q denotes the process composed of P and Q running concurrently. Scope restriction allows for local name creation avoiding unwanted communications with the exterior. If x is a name and P is a process, then $(\nu x)P$ denotes the restriction of x to the scope defined by P. Multiple name restrictions on a process $(\nu x_1) \cdots (\nu x_n)P$ will be written $(\nu \tilde{x})P$.

Replication accounts for unbounded computation power, and in particular for recursive definition of objects. A replicated object of the form $! \ a \rhd [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& \ l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$ represents an unbounded number of copies of the object $a \rhd [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& \ l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$. Inaction is the last constructor of the calculus. Denoted by 0, it represents the process which does nothing, and could have been defined as $(\nu x)x \rhd []$. The length of the sequence of names \tilde{x} is denoted by $len(\tilde{x})$, and the set of names occurring in \tilde{x} by $\{\tilde{x}\}$. The syntax of the calculus is summarized below.

Definition 2.1 (Syntax) Let N be an infinite set of names and N^* the set of (finite) sequences over N. Let L be a set of labels. The set of terms P is given by the following grammar.

$$P ::= a \triangleleft l(\tilde{v}) \mid a \triangleright [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n] \mid P, Q \mid (\nu x)P \mid ! a \triangleright [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n] \mid \mathbf{0}$$

where a, b, \ldots and v, x, y, \ldots range over N; $\tilde{v}, \tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, \ldots$ range over N^* ; l, m, \ldots range over L and P, Q, \ldots range over P. Labels $l_1, \ldots l_n$ and names in \tilde{x}_i , $i = 1, \ldots n$, are assumed to be pairwise distinct.

For succinctness we will often write !P instead of the more verbose form ! $a \triangleright [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$, but one should keep in mind that we only allow replication over objects.

Objects and scope restriction are the binding operators of the calculus, which justifies the following definition.

Definition 2.2 (Free names) The set of free names in P, denoted $\mathcal{FN}(P)$, is inductively defined by:

$$\mathcal{FN}(0) = \emptyset$$

$$\mathcal{FN}(a \lhd l(\tilde{v})) = \{a\} \cup \{\tilde{v}\}$$

$$\mathcal{FN}(a \rhd [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]) = \bigcup_i (\mathcal{FN}(P_i) \setminus \{\tilde{x}_i\}) \cup \{a\}$$

$$\mathcal{FN}(P,Q) = \mathcal{FN}(P) \cup \mathcal{FN}(Q)$$

$$\mathcal{FN}((\nu x)P) = \mathcal{FN}(P) \setminus \{x\}$$

$$\mathcal{FN}(!P) = \mathcal{FN}(P)$$

A notion of substitution of free occurrences of x by z in P, denoted P[z/x], is defined in the usual way, and so is α -conversion. Also, whenever $len(\tilde{z}) = len(\tilde{x})$ and the names in \tilde{x} are all distinct, $P\{\tilde{z}/\tilde{x}\}$ denotes the result of the simultaneous replacement of free occurrences of \tilde{x} by \tilde{z} in P (with change of bound names where necessary, as usual.)

Definition 2.3 (Structural congruence) \equiv is the smallest congruence relation over processes defined by the following rules.

- 1. $P \equiv Q$ whenever P is α -convertible to Q
- 2. (P, ', ', 0) forms a commutative monoid with equality \equiv
- 3. $a \triangleright [l(\tilde{x}).P \& m(\tilde{y}).Q] \equiv a \triangleright [m(\tilde{y}).Q \& l(\tilde{x}).P]$
- 4. $(\nu x)P,Q \equiv (\nu x)(P,Q)$ whenever $x \notin \mathcal{FN}(Q)$
- 5. $!P \equiv P, !P$

There is a *normal form* into which every process can be transformed. Let us call *base-terms* to messages and objects, replicated or not.

Proposition 2.4 (Normal form) For any process P in P there is an equivalent process P' of the form,

$$(\nu \tilde{u})(P_1,\cdots,P_m)$$

where where $P_1, \ldots P_m$ denote base terms, for some $m \geq 1$. P' (usually not unique) is called a normal form of P.

Message application constitutes the basic communication mechanism of the calculus, and represents the reception of a message by an object, followed by the selection of the appropriate method, the substitution of the message contents by the method's formal parameters, and the execution of the method body. **Definition 2.5** (Message application) Let $l(\tilde{v})$ be the communication of some message, and let $[l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$ be a collection of methods. Message application is defined by,

$$[l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n] \bullet l(\tilde{v}) \rightarrow P_k\{\tilde{v}/\tilde{x}_k\}$$

whenever $l = l_k \in \{l_1, \ldots l_n\}$ and the lengths of \tilde{v} and \tilde{x}_k match.

Reduction models the computing mechanism of the calculus. By using structural congruence, normal forms and message application, it can be concisely defined.

Definition 2.6 (Reduction) One-step reduction, denoted by \rightarrow , is the smallest relation generated by the following rules.

$$STRUCT \qquad \frac{P' \equiv P \quad P \to Q \quad Q \equiv Q'}{P' \to Q'}$$

$$COMM \qquad \frac{M \bullet C \to P}{(\nu \tilde{x})(\partial, a \lhd C, a \rhd M, \partial') \to (\nu \tilde{x})(\partial, P, \partial')}$$

where ∂ and ∂' represent concurrent composition of base-terms, C is a communication of the form $l(\tilde{v})$ and M is a collection of methods of the form $[l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$.

The reduction relation \rightarrow is the reflexive and transitive closure of one-step reduction.

Objects are recursive in nature, yet we have no explicit way of providing recursion. Since recursion can be eliminated in favor of replication (see, e.g. [4]), we will freely write,

$$X(\tilde{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P$$
 $(\{\tilde{x}\} = \mathcal{FN}(P))$

and let X occur in P, to mean the process,

$$(\nu c)(c \lhd \operatorname{recur}(\tilde{x}), !c \rhd \operatorname{recur}(\tilde{x}).P')$$
 (c fresh)

where P' is obtained from P by replacing occurrences of $X(\tilde{a})$ for $c < recur(\tilde{a})$. The replicated process can be proved to behave (weakly) similarly to its recursive counterpart. In this way we have an unbounded number of copies of P', each one capable of being activated trough recur with a particular instance of P's "local variables".

Example 2.7 One of the simplest stateful objects is a buffer cell. Such an object has two methods, read and write, intended to read and write a value in the cell. Together with a read request comes a name intended to receive the value the buffer is holding. Here is a possible definition.

$$Cell(sv) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} s \triangleright [\text{read}(r). \ r \triangleleft \text{value}(v), Cell(sv) \& \text{write}(u). \ Cell(su)]$$

² Label recur is, of course, arbitrary.

3 Types and Typing Assignment

This section introduces a notion of types for names and a basic typing system to assign types to the free names in terms. We then state some important properties of the typing system.

Types are intended to describe some property of the entity they are associated with. In our calculus names identify objects and hence types should represent a property of objects. Objects in P do not possess an input-output behavior and thus a function space construct makes no sense. Instead, objects receive messages, messages of a certain form, and that is the property types will describe.

Definition 3.1 (Types) Let V be an infinite set of type-variables. The set of types T is defined by the following grammar.

$$\alpha ::= t \mid [l_1 : \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots l_n : \tilde{\alpha}_n]$$

for $n \geq 0$, where labels $l_1, \ldots l_n \in \mathbf{L}$ are pairwise distinct; $t, t' \ldots$ range over \mathbf{V} ; $\alpha, \beta \ldots$ over \mathbf{T} , and $\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta} \ldots$ over \mathbf{T}^* .

Informally, an expression of the form $[l_1:\tilde{\alpha}_1,\ldots l_n:\tilde{\alpha}_n]$ is intended to denote some collection of names identifying objects containing n methods labelled with $l_1,\ldots l_n$ and whose arguments of method l_i belong to type $\tilde{\alpha}_i$.

Type assignment formulas are expressions $x:\alpha$, for x a name in N and α a type in T, where x is called the formula's subject and α its predicate. Typings are sets of formulas of the form $\{x_1:\alpha_1,\ldots x_n:\alpha_n\}$, where no two formulas have the same name as subject. Γ, Δ, \ldots will denote typings.

Definition 3.2 (Typing compatibility) Typings Γ and Δ are compatible, denoted $\Gamma \times \Delta$, if and only if,

$$x: \alpha \in \Gamma$$
 and $x: \beta \in \Delta$ implies $\alpha = \beta$

The following notation simplifies the treatment of the typing assignment system. Let $\tilde{x} = x_1 \cdots x_n$ be a sequence of names, $\tilde{\alpha} = \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n$ a sequence of types and Γ a typing. Then, $\{\tilde{x}:\tilde{\alpha}\}$ denotes the typing $\{x_1:\alpha_1,\ldots x_n:\alpha_n\}$; $\Gamma \cdot \tilde{x}:\tilde{\alpha}$ denotes typing $\Gamma \cup \{\tilde{x}:\tilde{\alpha}\}$, provided names in \tilde{x} do not occur in Γ ; and Γ/\tilde{x} denotes the typing Γ with formulas with subjects in \tilde{x} removed.

Typing assignment statements are expressions $P \succ \Gamma$ for all processes P and typings Γ . We will write $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$ if the statement $P \succ \Gamma$ is provable using the axioms and the rules of TA below. Whenever $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$ for some typing Γ , we say P is typable, and call Γ a well-typing for P.

Definition 3.3 (Typing assignment system TA) TA is defined by the following rules.

NIL
$$\vdash 0 \succ \emptyset$$

Msg
$$\vdash a \triangleleft l(\tilde{v}) \succ \{\tilde{v} : \tilde{\alpha}, a : [l : \tilde{\alpha}, \ldots]\}$$
 $(\{\tilde{v} : \tilde{\alpha}\} \bowtie \{a : [l : \tilde{\alpha}, \ldots]\})$

OBJ
$$\frac{(\{a:[l_1:\tilde{\alpha}_1,\ldots l_n:\tilde{\alpha}_n]\}\asymp \Gamma_i,\Gamma_i\asymp \Gamma_j,1\leq i,j\leq n)}{\vdash P_i\succ \Gamma_i\cdot \tilde{x}_i:\tilde{\alpha}_i} \\ \frac{a\rhd [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1\ \&\cdots\&\ l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]\succ \{a:[l_1:\tilde{\alpha}_1,\ldots l_n:\tilde{\alpha}_n]\}\cup \Gamma_1\cup\cdots\Gamma_n}$$

Scop
$$\frac{\vdash P \succ \Gamma}{\vdash (\nu x)P \succ \Gamma/x}$$
 Conc $\frac{\vdash P \succ \Gamma}{\vdash P, Q \succ \Gamma \cup \Delta}$ $(\Gamma \asymp \Delta)$

REPL $\frac{\vdash P \succ \Gamma}{\vdash ! P \succ \Gamma}$ Weak $\frac{\vdash P \succ \Gamma}{\vdash P \succ \Gamma \cdot x : \alpha}$

Example 3.4 Consider the buffer cell in example 2.7. Since method write expects a name of any type t (the type of the value the cell holds), and method read expects a name capable of receiving a message of type value: t, a typing for Cell(sv) is given by,

$$\{s: [read: [value:t], write:t], v:t\}$$

Notice that this is not the only possible well-typing for Cell(sv). In fact, apart from substitutions on variable t, we have that, e.g.

$$\{s : [\mathsf{read} : [\mathsf{value} : t, \mathsf{print} : u], \mathsf{write} : t], \ v : t\}$$

is also a well-typing for the process. However, the typing,

$$\{s: [read: [value:t], write:t, think:u], v:t\}$$

is not acceptable since it would allow us to compose Cell(sv) with $s \triangleleft think(x)$, which would surely run into a type error.

Whenever a process P is typable, there exists a TA derivation which produces a typing containing only assignments on the free names of P. If Γ is a typing, let $\Gamma \upharpoonright P$ be the restriction of Γ to the free names in P. We shall call typings of this form P-typings.

Lemma 3.5 If $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$, then all free names of P occur in Γ and $\vdash P \succ \Gamma \upharpoonright P$.

The following lemma ensures that structural congruent processes have the same typings.

Lemma 3.6 If
$$\vdash P \succ \Gamma$$
 and $P \equiv Q$, then $\vdash Q \succ \Gamma$.

The following fundamental property of the typing assignment system TA ensures that the typing of a process does not change as it is reduced and is closely related with the lack of runtime errors.

Theorem 3.7 (Subject Reduction) If $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$ and $P \longrightarrow Q$, then $\vdash Q \succ \Gamma$.

Notice that the converse of subject reduction does not hold, since non typable terms can be reduced to typable ones (e.g. $a \triangleleft l(a), a \triangleright l(x).0 \longrightarrow 0$), and also because free-names may be lost in the course of reduction (e.g. $\vdash 0 \succ \emptyset$ and $a \triangleleft l(v), a \triangleright l(x).0 \longrightarrow 0$ but $\not\vdash a \triangleleft l(v), a \triangleright l(x).0 \succ \emptyset$). Also due to the loss of free names during reduction, if $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$, $P \longrightarrow Q$, and $\vdash Q \succ \Delta$, then $\Delta \upharpoonright Q \subseteq \Gamma \upharpoonright P$.

A consequence of the subject-reduction property is that typable programs will not run into type errors during execution. We say P contains a possible runtime error, and write $P \in ERR$, if there exists a term Q such that $P \longrightarrow Q \equiv (\nu \tilde{u})(\partial, a \lhd l(\tilde{v}), a \rhd [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n], \partial')$ and $[l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n] \bullet l(\tilde{v})$ is not defined; that is, either $l \not\in \{l_1, \ldots l_n\}$ or else $l = l_k \in \{l_1, \ldots l_n\}$ but $len(\tilde{v}) \neq len(\tilde{x}_k)$.

Corollary 3.8 If P is typable, then $P \notin Err$.

4 Principal typings

We have seen in example 3.4 that the system TA as presented in section 3 possesses no simple notion of principal typings, solely based on substitution of types for type variables, and on the number and nature of labels present in a type. In this section we introduce an alternative presentation of the system, compatible with TA, by using constraints on the substitution of type variables in the style of Ohori [5], which allows to talk about principal typings.

Kinds describe constraints on the substitution of type variables, and are defined as follows.

Definition 4.1 (Kinds) The set of kinds K is given by all expressions of the form

$$\langle l_1 : \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots l_n : \tilde{\alpha}_n \rangle$$

where $l_1, \ldots l_n$ are distinct labels in L and $\tilde{\alpha}_1, \ldots \tilde{\alpha}_n$ are sequences of types in T^* , for $n \geq 0$. k, k', \ldots will range over K.

Intuitively, a kind of the form $\langle l_1 : \tilde{\alpha}_1, \ldots l_n : \tilde{\alpha}_n \rangle$ denotes the subset of types containing (at least) the components $l_1 : \tilde{\alpha}_1, \ldots l_n : \tilde{\alpha}_n$.

Kind assignments are expressions t:k, for t a type variable and k a kind. Kindings are acyclic sets of kind assignments⁵ where no two assignments have the same type variable as subject. K, K', \ldots will range over kindings. We say a type α has a kind k under a kinding K, denoted by $K \vdash \alpha:k$, if and only if,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K & \vdash [l_1 \colon \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots l_n \colon \tilde{\alpha}_n, \dots] : \langle l_1 \colon \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots l_n \colon \tilde{\alpha}_n \rangle \\ K \cdot t \colon \langle l_1 \colon \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots l_n \colon \tilde{\alpha}_n, \dots \rangle & \vdash & t & \colon \langle l_1 \colon \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots l_n \colon \tilde{\alpha}_n \rangle \end{array}$$

⁵ A cycle in a set of kind assignments is a sequence of elements $t_1: k_1, \ldots t_n: k_n$ such that t_{i+1} occurs in k_i and t_1 occurs in k_n , for $n \ge 1$.

Kinded typing assignments are expressions of the form $K \vdash P \succ \Gamma$, where all type variables in typing Γ occur in kinding K.

We will write $K \vdash_k P \succ \Gamma$ if the statement $P \succ \Gamma$ is provable from kinding K, using the rules and axioms of TA_k below.

Definition 4.2 (Kinded typing assignment system TA_k) TA_k is defined by the rules in TA with sequents of the form $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$ replaced by $K \vdash P \succ \Gamma$ and by replacing rule MSG for rule MSG_k below.

$$\operatorname{Msg}_{k} \quad \frac{K \vdash \beta : \langle l : \tilde{\alpha} \rangle}{K \vdash a \lhd l(\tilde{v}) \succ \{\tilde{v} : \tilde{\alpha}, a : \beta\}} \quad (\{\tilde{v} : \tilde{\alpha}\} \times \{a : \beta\})$$

We can easily prove that TA_k is correct with respect to TA. In fact, deductions in TA are valid in TA_k if we start from a kinding assigning an arbitrary kind to every variable appearing in the deduction.

Theorem 4.3 If $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$ then $K \vdash_k P \succ \Gamma$, for any kinding K assigning every variable occurring in the deduction of $\vdash P \succ \Gamma$.

Conversely we can prove that, deductions in TA_k can be mapped into deductions in TA, by replacing kinded type variables by types constrained to the kinding.

Theorem 4.4 If $K \vdash_k P \succ \Gamma$ then $\vdash P \succ \Gamma'$, where Γ' is a typing obtained from Γ by recursively replacing type variables t for record types of the form $[l_1:\tilde{\alpha}_1,\ldots l_n:\tilde{\alpha}_n]$ whenever $K \vdash t:\langle l_1:\tilde{\alpha}_1,\ldots l_n:\tilde{\alpha}_n\rangle$.

A substitution on types is a mapping $s: \mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{T}$ from type variables to types. Such a substitution can be easily extended to types, typings and kinds. A kinded substitution is a pair (K, s) composed of a kinding K and a substitution s.

We say a kinded substitution (K',s) respects a kinding K if and only if $K' \vdash st:sk$ whenever $t:k \in K$. A kinded substitution (K,s) is more general than (K',r) if there is a substitution u such that r=us and (K',u) respects K.

A kinded set of equations is a pair (K, E) composed of a kinding K and a set of equations of the form $\alpha = \beta$, for α and β types in T. We say a kinded substitution (K, s) is a unifier of (K', E) if and only if (K, s) respects K' and $s\alpha = s\beta$ for all $\alpha = \beta \in E$.

Theorem 4.5 (Kinded unification [5]) There is an algorithm which, given any kinded set of equations, computes a most general unifier if it exists, and reports failure otherwise.

A kinded typing is a pair (K, Γ) composed of a kinding K and a typing Γ . We say that a kinded typing (K', Δ) is an instance of (K, Γ) (or alternatively that (K, Γ) is more general than (K', Δ)) if there is a substitution s such that,

$$(K',s)$$
 respects K and $s\Gamma \subseteq \Delta$

One important fact about instances is that every instance of a well-typing is also a well-typing.

Lemma 4.6 If $K \vdash_k P \succ \Gamma$ and (K', Δ) is an instance of (K, Γ) , then $K' \vdash_k P \succ \Delta$.

All possible typings for a given process are instances of its principal kinded typing.

Definition 4.7 (Principal kinded typing) A kinded typing (K, Γ) is principal for a process P if and only if,

- 1. $K \vdash_k P \succ \Gamma$, and
- 2. if $K' \vdash_k P \succ \Delta$, then (K', Δ) is an instance of (K, Γ) .

It should be obvious that the principal typing of a process, when it exists, is unique up to renaming of type variables, and that it contains exactly the free names in the process.

Example 4.8 Recall the buffer cell object of example 2.7, and let t be the type of the value of the cell. By assigning a type variable u (subject to the constraint that it must be assigned a record type having at least a component value: t) to the object intended to receive the reply to a read request, the principal kinded typing of Cell(sv) is given by

$$(\{t:\langle\rangle,u:\langle\mathsf{value}:t\rangle\},\{s:[\mathsf{read}:u,\mathsf{write}:t],\ v:t\})$$

Theorem 4.9 (Existence of principal typings) If P is typable then there exists a principal kinded typing for P. It can be effectively computed.

An algorithm to extract the principal kinded typing of a process is described in the next section.

5 Typing Inference

This section introduces an efficient algorithm to extract the principal kinded typing of a process. The algorithm is based on that of Vasconcelos and Honda [7] for the polyadic π -calculus, which in turn is based on Wand's [8].

The algorithm builds from a process P_0 with all bound names renamed to be distinct, a typing and kinded set of equations to be submitted to the kinded unification procedure. Suppose the algorithm to be described produces a typing Γ_0 and a kinded set of equations (K, E), and use kinded unification on the set of equations. If (K', s) is a unifier of (K, E), then $s\Gamma_0$ is a well-typing for P_0 under kinding K'. Conversely, if P_0 is typable, then all its P-typings under kinding K' are of the form $s\Gamma_0 \upharpoonright P_0$, for (K', s) a unifier of (K, E). If Γ is a typing, we will write Γa for the type associated with name a in Γ , and $\Gamma \tilde{a}$ for the sequence of types associated with the sequence of names \tilde{a} in Γ .

Input: A term P_0 with all bound names renamed to be distinct.

Initialization: Set $E = \emptyset$, $G = \{P_0\}$, Γ_0 to a typing assigning to all names in P_0 distinct type-variables, and K to a kinding assigning to all variables in Γ_0 an empty kind $\langle \rangle$.

Loop: If $G = \emptyset$, then halt and return (K, E). Otherwise choose a goal P from G, delete it from G and add to G, E and K, new goals, equations and kind assignments as specified below.

Case P is 0: Generate nothing.

Case P is $a \triangleleft l(\tilde{v})$: Generate the equation $\Gamma_0 a = t$ and the kind assignment $t: \langle l: \Gamma_0 \tilde{v} \rangle$, for t a fresh variable.

Case P is $a \triangleright [l_1(\tilde{x}_1).P_1 \& \cdots \& l_n(\tilde{x}_n).P_n]$: Generate the equation $\Gamma_0 a = [l_1: \Gamma_0 \tilde{x}_1, \ldots l_n: \Gamma_0 \tilde{x}_n]$ and the goals $P_1, \ldots P_n$.

Case P is Q, R: Generate the goals Q and R.

Case P is $(\nu x)Q$ or !Q: Generate the goal Q.

To build the principal kinded typing of a term P_0 , we use the above algorithm on P_0 and then the kinded unification algorithm on the resulting kinded set of equations (K, E). If (K, E) has no solutions, then P_0 is not typable. Otherwise let (K', s) be the most general unifier of (K, E). Then, $(K', s\Gamma_0 \upharpoonright P_0)$ is the principal typing of P_0 . If follows by Lemma 4.6 that every instance of $(K', s\Gamma_0 \upharpoonright P_0)$ is a well kinded typing for P_0 .

6 Concluding Remarks

We presented a basic calculus aiming to capture some essential notions present in systems of concurrent objects communicating via asynchronous message passing, together with a typing system for the calculus. Types are assigned to names and are intended to describe the kind of messages objects associated with the name are able to receive. Processes are not assigned types, but else a collection of name-type pairs. The typing system presented assigns a type to each free name in a process, thus specifying in some sense the interface of the process. Programs that conform to the typing discipline were shown not to run into errors. Furthermore, we presented an algorithm to extract the principal typing of a program, from which all typings that make the program well-typed can be extracted.

The approach seems an interesting basis from which explore further aspects present in objects, namely the notion of inheritance (by introducing new or redefining existing methods in objects) and that of subtyping (by introducing new components in a record type) as well the relationship between these. Also, an extension of the typing system to include recursive types,

indispensable to type objects denoting basic data such as natural numbers and lists, can be easily done along the lines of [7]. Another related line of investigation, in the style of [6], encompasses the introduction of variables over process accompanied by a notion of predicative polymorphism, and a ML-like let construct. Such a system would allow the declaration of an object of a polymorphic type, which could be used in a program multiple times with different types, instances of the type of the declared object.

On the pragmatic side, one should study the applicability of the calculus as a means to describe semantics and types of object-oriented concurrent programming languages such as Actor based languages, Concurrent Smalltalk, ABCL and POOL, as well as a clean incorporation of functions as a particular discipline of object definition and usage.

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